

Estimation of distribution parameters from statistically limited information; muons in KASCADE experiment

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Abstract

The problem of the estimation of distribution parameters in the case of experimentally limited information is discussed. As an example the determination of the total number of muons in Extensive Air Showers registered in the KASCADE experiment is studied in details. Some methods based on other than standard maximum-likelihood approach are examined. The advantages of the new methods are shown. The comparison with the Artificial Neural Network approach is also given.

1 Introduction

The experimental study of a particular distribution shape is often related to the extraction of an information from the statistically scant data. Due to the physics of a phenomenon under study or to the experimental situation the distribution we want to distinguish is only sampled by the very limited number of measured occurrences. The very good example of such situation takes place in cosmic ray ground level physics. The high energy particle cascade initiated by the particle of energy of PeV or more reach the sea level as a huge number of elementary particles. More that 95% of them are electromagnetic particles (e^- , e^+ or high energy gamma quanta) there are also very few hadrons and few percents muons. All these particles are distributed in the plane perpendicular to the shower axis. Shapes of these distributions in each Extensive Air Showers (EAS) contain an information about two main points of interest in cosmic ray physics: the nature of the primary particle and the character of the very high energy interaction. Thus, to extract that information the distributions have to be regain first. The electrons (positrons and gammas) are relatively abundant so the determination of their distribution makes rather modest problem. The muons, as it will be shown below, gives an opportunity to look for a non-standard solutions of the distribution parameter estimation problem with a poor statistics.

2 Basic definitions

Let the $f(x; \{p_m\})$ will be the "inclusive" distribution of some random variable x . The form of f is preadjusted from some theoretical assumptions or experimental experience. There is a set of parameters $\{p_m\}$ (including may be also a normalization constant - the f need not to be normalized to unity) to be estimated. The methods commonly used for that purposes are based on minimization with respect to $\{p_m\}$ some distance measure between the n particular random realizations of variable x and the predictions for given values of $\{p_m\}$. (The value of n can be also a random variable, as it will be seen in the case of muons in EAS.) The standard procedure is to build the histogram from the $\{x_i; i = 1, \dots, n\}$ and use one of handbook methods to fit the histogram using values obtained from $f(x; \{p_m\})$ by respective integration. The most popular method is to use the χ^2 measure.

The problem can be solved satisfactory in all the cases where the method is applicable. In general it can be said than this happens if the number n of used random realizations of function f is sufficiently high. The meaning of "sufficiently" is not well define. All depends on the way of binning. For too many (with respect to the value of n) too small bins the contents of some bins can be not enough to satisfy the χ^2 applicability conditions. It is quite clear that if we have very few entries in a particular bin the fluctuations of the bin contents could not be treated as gaussian and the simple probabilistic meaning of χ^2 is no longer valid. However the formula for calculation the distance:

$$u := \sum_{\text{histogram}} \frac{(Ne_i - Nc_i)^2}{Nc_i}, \quad (1)$$

where Ne_i is the content of i -th histogram bin and Nc_i is its expected value for a given set of parameters, can be still treated as a measure of a distance between the histogrammed data and the prediction for given $\{p_m\}$ remembering that the probability distribution of the variable u is not the χ^2 one. In that sense it can be used in minimization procedures to fit some unknown parameters for any bin contents.

The inconvenience of statistical interpretation of the distance defined in Eq. (1) can be avoid if we use the exact maximum likelihood method. The measure used is:

$$u := \sum_{\text{histogram}} [- \ln (p (Ne_i; Nc_i))], \quad (2)$$

where $p(Ne_i; Nc_i)$ is the probability that i -th bin of the histogram contents is Ne_i while the value expected for the given set of parameters $\{p_m\}$ is Nc_i .

In that paper the other possibilities of the distance measure between his-

togrammed data and given values of $\{p_m\}$ prediction are also investigated. The first proposition is the measure similar to the euclidean metric in multidimensional space:

$$u := \sqrt{\sum_{\text{histogram}} (Ne_i - Nc_i)^2}, \quad (3)$$

the other is:

$$u := \sum_{\text{histogram}} |Ne_i - Nc_i|. \quad (4)$$

During the binning procedure some amount of information is lost. The problem arises in particular when the normalization constant is one of the parameter to be estimated and the expected number of n is small. The methods which use the information about each single x (or from histograms with very small bin size, what is analogous to some extend) establish qualitatively quite different and important (as it will be seen) class of measures. Among them the best known are those derived using the concept of random walk (which is, in fact, a basis of the well known Kolmogorov–Smirnov test). From the set of $\{x_i\}$ something like the cumulative distribution can be made:

$$De_j = \sum_{i=1}^k \Theta(x_j - x_i), \quad (5)$$

where

$$\Theta(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

and j can enumerate both: single values of x or histogram channel contents.

In the same way the expected "cumulative distribution" (normalized with respect to the n) of $f(x; \{p_m\})$ obtained for given values of parameters can be defined:

$$Dc_j = \sum_j \int \Theta(x_j - x) f(x; \{p_m\}) dx, \quad (7)$$

where the integration is taken over the whole x domain covered experimentally.

Using both "cumulative distributions" the measure can be defined as:

$$u := \max_j (|De_j - Dc_j|) \quad (8)$$

Here again some modifications can be made. Two examples will be discussed in that paper:

$$u := \max_j (De_j - Dc_j, 0) + \max_j (Dc_j - De_j, 0) \quad (9)$$

and

$$u := \left[\left(\max_j (De_j - Dc_j, 0) \right)^2 + \left(\max_j (Dc_j - De_j, 0) \right)^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (10)$$

3 Applications to the muons in KASCADE experiment

For the statistical methods examination it is enough to test the case of *ideal experiment*. Particle detectors are distributed over some area and each detector responses giving the number of muons passed through its surface. In the real situation there is some spread of the detector signal so the results obtained in the present work can be considered as a most optimistic approximation of the reality.

The geometry of our *ideal experiment* studied in that paper is exactly the geometry of the KASCADE experiment (Ref. [1]). This experiment is at present about starting to collecting data and the expected quality of these data gives a hope to make a great improvement in our knowledge of the nature of EAS. Among the others there are 192 muon detectors of area 3.2 m² distributed over the area of 200 m × 200 m. The KASCADE experiment is dedicated to EAS induced by primary CR particle of energies from about of 10¹⁵ eV. In that paper the low energy threshold of the experiment due to lack of information about muon distribution from the array detectors is investigated.

To start any *ideal experiment* a source of *ideal inputs* is needed. The performance of the data evaluation can be tested only when there is a set of presumed *inputs* as they are expected in real case *and* the respective set of *true answers* which the experiment should give. In our case the Monte–Carlo shower simulation code CORSIKA version 4.112 was used (Ref. [2]). That program realize the complete simulation of particle passage through the atmosphere producing the large output file of all particles on the level of observation. For that paper the use of particular code is not very important. The statistical behaviour of an *ideal experiment* does not, to some extend, depend of the physical exactness of the Monte–Carlo calculation of EAS development. For the same reasons in the present analysis only vertical showers are used.

The Monte–Carlo program in principle do not give the muon lateral distribution. Some finite number of muons is nevertheless distributed somehow over the experiment surface. Due to the random character of physical processes in the shower development the concept of muon lateral distribution in each individual EAS can be introduced. It can be define as a probability distribution sampled by each muon in Monte–Carlo simulated shower. All the information about that distribution can be obtained, by definition, only from the finite

number of all muons in the particular shower. The accuracy of such definition for our purposes is quite enough (the surface covered by muon detectors allows us to measure only the fraction of percent of the muons in EAS).

The detail shape of the muon lateral distribution is of course unknown, but some analytical formulae could be found in the literature. The particular choice is again not very important for the present study. We used the one which reasonably well describes the Monte–Carlo outputs:

$$\rho(r) r^2 = N_\mu \left(\frac{r}{R_0} \right)^n \left(1 + \frac{r}{R_0} \right)^{-(m+n)} \frac{\Gamma(n)\Gamma(m)}{\Gamma(n+m)}, \quad (11)$$

where r is the distance from the shower core, which position was assumed to be known for our purposes (from electromagnetic EAS component measurement). The normalization of the above distribution was done in the way that the ρ can be treated as a muon density at a given distance and N_μ is the total muon number in the shower. There are four parameter in Eq. (11) to be adjusted (N_μ , R_0 , n and m). It has been checked that the value of m can be fixed without losing the quality of the *ideal inputs* description. The value of $m = 1.7$ is used hereafter. This was possible mainly because of the fact that the distances from the shower core to detectors were limited to about < 300 m (the simulated showers were uniformly distributed within about 50 m from the center of the KASCADE array).

For each simulated shower the formula in Eq. (11) was fitted with the help of standard methods to all muons in the distance range from 10 m to 300 m. The exactness of such fits is given below. The obtained parameters N_μ , R_0 and n will be hereafter called *true* parameters of the particular simulated shower.

In the next step the muons from the simulated shower are sampled by the net of our *ideal* muon detectors producing the output signal of the *ideal experiment*. Detectors can be treated as a relatively small bins in the histogram with respect to the distance from the shower core.

The general problem is how the information about *true* values of the individual shower muon distribution parameters (N_μ , R_0 , n) can be derived from the 192 histogram channel contents.

First method tested was the standard χ^2 method. The histogram (detector responses) was rebinned. Finally, after some tests, the constant bin limits have been chosen: (10, 20, 30, 50, 70, 100, 130, 170 and 200 m). The sum in Eq. (1) was performed only for the bins with the contents not less than 5. That method will be hereafter called $H\chi 1$.

Without assumption about the minimal bin contents the Eq. (1) was also used. This method will be called $H\chi 2$.

Next tested possibility is associated with the Eq. (2) The assumption that all the muons are uncorrelated (for one particular EAS) leads to the poissonian distribution of the fluctuations in each histogram bin:

$$p(n; \bar{n}) = \frac{\bar{n}^n}{n!} e^{-\bar{n}}. \quad (12)$$

Using that directly with Eq. (2) the method called HL is defined.

The equations Eqs. (3) and (4) applied to the histogrammed detector outputs leads to the methods labeled HE, HA respectively.

The Kolmogorov–Smirnov like method was also checked for the rebinned histogram. The Eq. (8) where j indexes 10 big bins lead to the method called HK.

The main aim of that work is to look for the best estimation method. It was foreseen that using directly each detector information the results should be improved. First the standard measure (Eq. (1)) was checked. (With N_{e_i} replaced in that case by the i -th detector response and N_{c_i} by its expected value.)

The assumption of minimum hits in particular detector was of course rejected. That method will be called $D\chi$.

With analogy to the method introduced to the big bin histogram the measures defined by Eqs. (3) and (4) were used leading to the methods denoted by DE and DA respectively:

$$u := \sqrt{\sum_{\text{detectors}} (n_i - s \rho(r_i))^2}, \quad (13)$$

$$u := \sum_{\text{detectors}} |n_i - s \rho(r_i)|, \quad (14)$$

where s is a detector area, r_i its distance from the shower core and n_i detector response.

The maximum likelihood methods are the standard tools in the estimation theory. In the present work that possibility was investigated too. In general, it is based on the knowledge of the shape of fluctuations with respect to the mean of the muon number passing the given detector surface at fixed distance from the shower core. The detail study of the Monte–Carlo simulated showers allows us to state that they are wider than poissonian (Ref. [3]). They can be well approximated by the negative binomial distribution:

$$p(n; \bar{n}, \gamma) = \binom{\bar{n}/\gamma + n - 1}{n} \left[\frac{1/\gamma}{1 + 1/\gamma} \right]^{\frac{\bar{n}}{\gamma}} \left[\frac{1/\gamma}{1 + 1/\gamma} \right]^n \quad (15)$$

with $\gamma = 1.0$. With that assumption the maximum likelihood measure can be defined (and than minimize):

$$u := \sum_{\text{detectors}} [-\ln (p(n_i; s \rho(r_i), 1.0))] . \quad (16)$$

That method will be hereafter called DP1.

To see if the particular negative binomial shape of the fluctuations produce an important effect the measure defined by Eq. (2) was used with the poissonian fluctuations (Eq. (12)). The results of such a calculations is denoted by DP2.

The Eq. (8) is of particular interest for the individual detector data. The minimization of that measure leads to the method called hereafter DD. The modifications described in Eqs. (9) and (10) were also tested. First named DD1 and the second DD2.

The last method results of which are presented in this paper is based on completely different way of solving the estimation problem. This is the Artificial Neural Network (ANN) method. The much more detailed discussion of it will be given elsewhere (Ref. [4]).

For the present analysis the neural network contains 192 input nodes which one steering with an integer response of one detector in the array. There are two hidden layers with successively decreasing numbers of neurons and finally one output node. The output signal of the network is related to one of the parameters (N_μ) of the muon lateral distribution (Eq. 11). The number of weights of the network to be adjusted is very large so for the network training about hundreds of thousands showers were used. A special technic was developed to achieve this. Details are not very important for the present work. Finally we obtained the network trained with the proton induced vertical showers in the energy range of interest. The ANN method results presented here are given just to compare them with the others and should be treated as, more or less, preliminary.

4 Results concerning the total number of muon estimation in the KASCADE experiment

The parameter of the great importance for the EAS study is a total muon number in the shower N_μ .

To perform the minimization of the respective u measure the standard MINUIT from the CERN library was used (Ref. [5]). It is obvious that in some cases due to fluctuations in the input data the minimum of some distance mea-

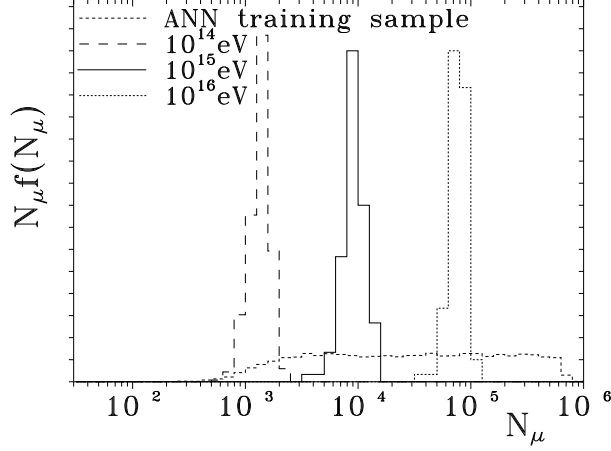


Fig. 1. Distribution of *true* N_μ values for showers of different primary proton energies 10^{14} , 10^{15} and 10^{16} eV. The thin dashed line shows the muon shower sizes distribution of the artificial neural network training sample.

sure can not be reached within reasonable limits of the parameters in Eq. (11). The limits used were $10 \div 800$ m for R_0 , $0.05 \div 1.99$ for n . The minimization was started with two parameters fixed: R_0 at 300 m and n at 1.43 (the values about the mean for 10^{15} eV) and the minimization was performed with only one parameter to minimize (N_μ). Then the n parameter was liberated and the minimization started again from the just found values. If possible, next, the R_0 parameter was fitted also.

Simulated showers which produced all 0 in our *ideal* array response matrix are of course lost.

All methods were examined for three different primary cosmic ray particle energies. As it has been said the KASCADE experiment is designed to study the cosmic ray primary spectrum in the very interesting and unexplored up to now region starting at about 10^{15} eV. Just below that energy its the end of the area covered by the recent top of the atmosphere experiments data. The correspondence of the direct (balloon-borne) and indirect (EAS) methods is one of the important point of that experiment so the determination of EAS parameters at the lower part of the shower size spectrum is very important.

The distributions of *true* total number of muons in showers of the energies of interest are given in Fig. 1.

To better recognize the problem the typical muon lateral density distributions of the showers initiated by the primary vertical proton of the energies from 10^{14} eV to 10^{16} eV are given in Fig. 2. The *true* muon distributions (fits of form given by Eq. (11) to the histograms) are also presented.

The spread of the points in the Fig. 2 is a result of the physical fluctuations in the shower development. To make this figure all the muons in the showers

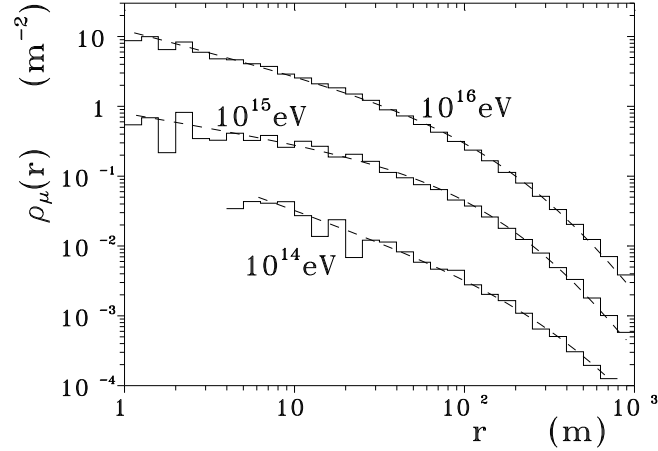


Fig. 2. Examples of the muon lateral distributions for individual proton showers of different energies (histograms). The curves represents the *true* muon lateral distributions of that particular showers.

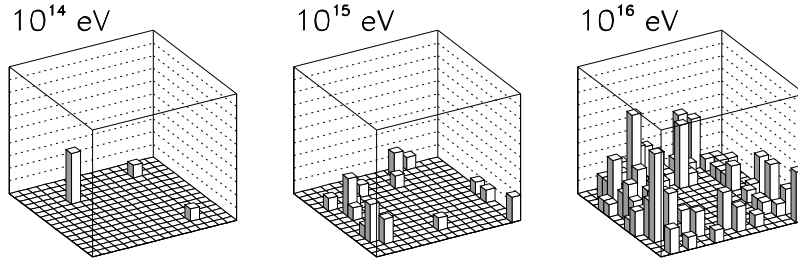


Fig. 3. Examples of the muon response array for showers in Fig. 2.

were used. The real problem arise when distributions like that are sampled with the net of detectors which covered only few % of the shower front area. The particular detector array responses for the showers which muon lateral distributions were given in Fig. 2 are presented in Fig. 3.

It can be seen that the expected numbers of muons seen in detectors is rather small as well as the fraction of fired detectors both for 10^{14} eV and even for 10^{15} eV energies. The situation for the energy 10^{16} eV looks better. It is interesting that even for the worst case some of discussed methods could give the reasonable estimation of the total muon contents.

The value of N_μ obtained for each shower in the *ideal experiment* using different methods described above has to be compared with its *true* value. The collection of figures presented below shows the spread of the calculated values about the *true* ones. The number of showers used for each test was about 3000 and the histograms were normalized in such a way that the area below each one is related to the fraction of cases were given method was used. The

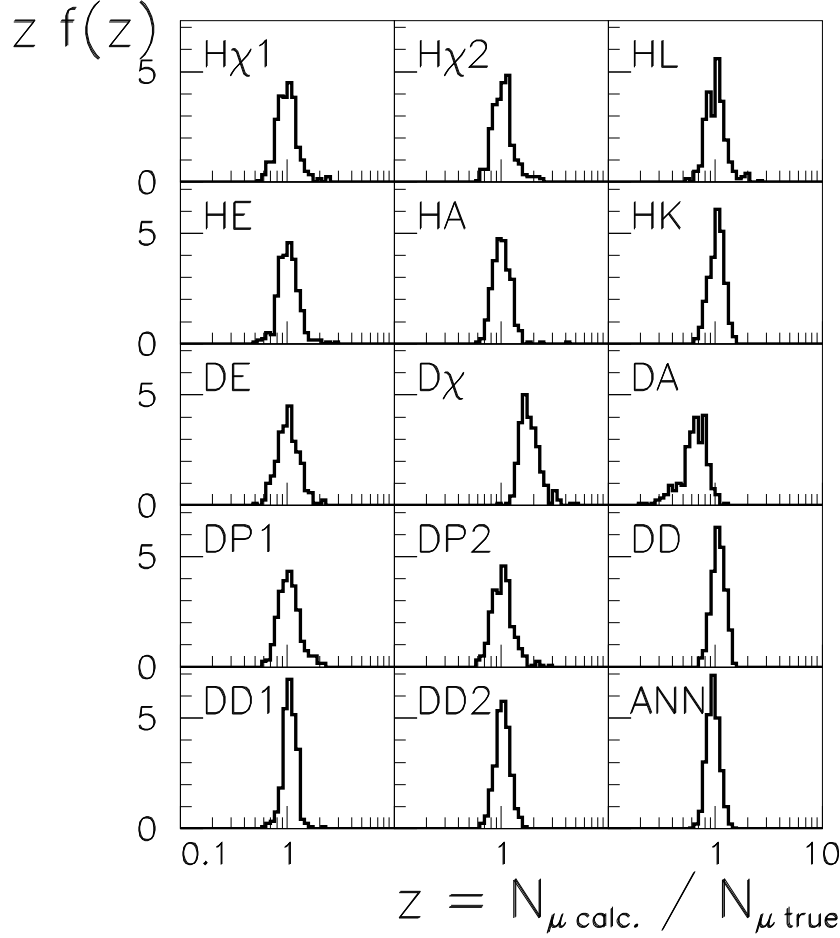


Fig. 4. The spread of the estimated N_μ value for each method discussed in the paper for the vertical 10^{16} eV proton induced showers.

shapes of the histograms give a self-explainable answer to the question about the exactness of each of the methods. The labels gives the references to the particular method for which the histograms were obtained.

In Fig. 4 there are shown results for 10^{16} eV. Figs. 5 and 6 present quality of the methods for showers with energies smaller of one and two orders of magnitude respectively.

The more quantitative results for different methods comparison are given in the Tables. In the 2nd column mean deviations of logarithm of the calculated N_μ from its *true* value are shown. In the 3rd column the accuracy of each method defined as a σ of the $(\log_{10} N_{c\mu}/N_{e\mu})$ distribution (as they are presented in Figs. 4 – 6). The applicability of each method defined as a fraction of showers for which particular method was successfully used is shown in the 4th columns. In the 5th column in the Table 3 the fraction of events for which at least two parameter fit was possible is given.

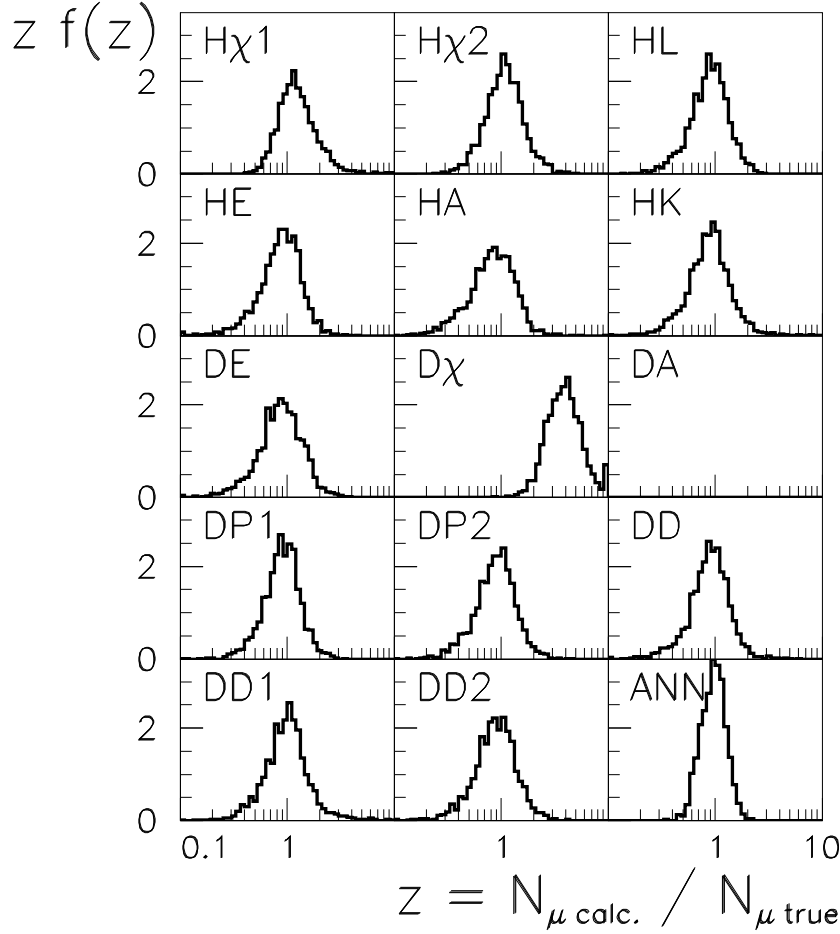


Fig. 5. The spread of the estimated N_μ value for the 10^{15} eV proton induced showers.

For the neural network the total muon number N_μ was only one parameter to study and a value of it was created for each shower except "all 0" showers which were not used in the present analysis.

5 Discussion of the results concerning the total number of muon estimation in the KASCADE experiment

Starting from the highest energy used for present examinations, 10^{16} eV, some interesting statements can be given about the efficiency of different methods for relatively muon rich showers ($N_\mu \sim 10^5$) where in every case at least about 50 detectors were hit. As to the methods based on a histogrammed data it is seen that all of them lead to very similar results. The reason for that is clear. The statistical significance of the information stored in the big bin histogram is so large that the particular differences between different measures used in minimization procedures has no great effect on the results. The situation is a little different when using the raw detector data. The biases are seen for two

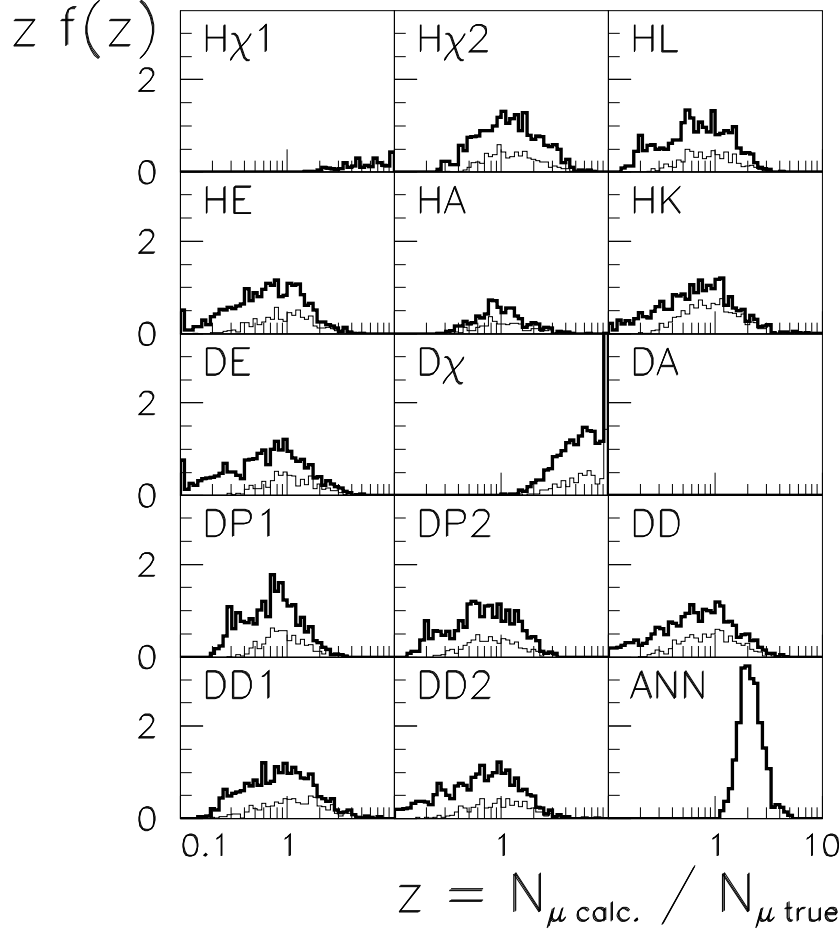


Fig. 6. The spread of the estimated N_μ value for the 10^{14} eV proton induced showers. The thin lines show results for events for which at least two parameter fit has been successfully applied.

measures: $D\chi$ and DA . Among the others it is clear that the two using the "cumulative distribution" metrics leads to the smallest spread of the calculated N_μ value with respect to the *true* one.

Comparison of the best minimization methods (e.g. DD or $DD1$) with the artificial neural network approach leads to the conclusion that no significant difference is seen. This can be treated as an evidence for the assumption that the exactness of the N_μ value estimation reaches its limit allowed by the physical fluctuations of the shower development. If two such different ways of the data evaluation shows as good agreement that with the high level of confidence one can postulate that it is a real limit, and there is no other way to get more information (about the parameter under the study) from that data.

Going down with the energy to 10^{15} eV, it is clearly seen in Fig. 5 and the Tables that the quality of all methods decreases. When the number of registered muons is really a few per event some methods fail in general but, what

method	$\langle \log_{10} \rangle$	σ_{\log}	applicability
H χ 1	0.017	0.099	1.000
H χ 2	0.038	0.100	1.000
HL	0.027	0.097	0.993
HE	0.030	0.097	1.000
HA	0.026	0.088	1.000
HK	0.032	0.070	1.000
DE	0.029	0.103	1.000
D χ	0.287	0.097	1.000
DA	-0.180	0.125	0.997
DP1	0.037	0.100	1.000
DP2	0.032	0.102	0.990
DD	0.048	0.062	1.000
DD1	0.042	0.066	1.000
DD2	0.031	0.070	1.000
ANN	-0.021	0.063	1.000

Table 1
Detailed results for 10^{16} eV proton shower sample.

is surprising, some are still useful.

The differences of using the histogrammed data measures appear. Some of them become unapplicable in a fraction of events for which the others are still useful. The larger differences arise for the raw data. The method DA for such showers can not be used any more for showers of that energy. The bias seen for D χ method become so great that its usefulness has to be also questionable. It is very interesting to note the difference between the two "maximum likelihood" method DP1 and DP2. The assumption about the poissonian fluctuations of the number of muons in single detector leads to enlargement of the error of the DP2 method in comparison with DP1. The reason for that is in the events in which the relatively big fluctuation on one detector appears. Its probability calculated from the poissonian distribution is much smaller than it is in real shower situation approximated by the negative binomial density fluctuation distribution. The significance in the minimization procedure of that particular detector increases when the mean muon density at a detector site is small.

The shapes of the most of thick histograms in Fig. 6 is not gaussian. This is simple a result of the details of the minimization technic used. The initial values of the R_0 and n parameters were taken to be the average values for 10^{15}

method	$\langle \log_{10} \rangle$	σ_{\log}	applicability
H χ 1	0.117	0.188	0.814
H χ 2	0.048	0.186	0.987
HL	-0.043	0.188	0.987
HE	-0.049	0.207	0.987
HA	-0.072	0.218	0.932
HK	-0.040	0.213	0.987
DE	-0.050	0.214	0.987
D χ	0.612	0.178	0.987
DA			
DP1	-0.032	0.175	0.984
DP2	-0.039	0.194	0.978
DD	-0.040	0.195	0.987
DD1	0.011	0.212	0.987
DD2	-0.041	0.202	0.987
ANN	-0.019	0.116	0.987

Table 2

Detailed results for 10^{15} eV proton shower sample.

eV showers. Thus, for a very small showers when the information about the muon distribution is very limited those parameters sometimes could not be adjusted further. Because the small showers are in average distributed wider in shower front plane the total muon number obtained from the fit of only one parameter has to be shifted to the smaller values. In the Fig. 6 there are also shown by the thin line histograms the results for the showers for which at least one of the distribution shape parameters could be adjusted. Those histograms are much more gaussian.

Among the minimization methods which works well for those small showers it is hard to chose the one significantly better than the others specially when trying to compare events with at least two parameters fitted.

The method based on the "cumulative distribution" measures (both: using the histogramed data - HK, and that using raw data - DD, DD1) could be used for at least two parameter fit in the largest fraction of events. The width of the $(\log_{10} Nc_{\mu}/Ne_{\mu})$ distribution is the smallest for the DP1 method. (Tab. 3)

Some advantages of ANN appear much clearly. However the ANN method

method	$\langle \log_{10} \rangle$	σ_{\log}	applicability	at least 2 par. fit
H χ 1	0.752	0.245	0.12	0.110
H χ 2	0.087	0.283	0.89	0.269
HL	-0.160	0.304	0.89	0.261
HE	-0.175	0.344	0.89	0.278
HA	0.011	0.236	0.32	0.142
HK	-0.162	0.346	0.89	0.415
DE	-0.194	0.374	0.89	0.246
D χ	0.808	0.255	0.89	0.242
DA				
DP1	-0.130	0.250	0.88	0.262
DP2	-0.158	0.299	0.86	0.250
DD	-0.165	0.341	0.89	0.338
DD1	-0.081	0.311	0.89	0.309
DD2	-0.175	0.344	0.89	0.260
ANN	0.331	0.112	0.89	

Table 3

Detailed results for 10^{14} eV proton shower sample.

for that small showers introduces systematical bias toward higher N_μ values. The reason of that is clear. In Fig. 1 there is presented *true* shower muon size spectrum for training sample. The network was trained only with the showers for which at least three detectors were hit while most of the showers of 10^{14} eV fire not more than five detectors. The value of the bias is correlated with the number of fired detectors (Ref. [4]) so it can be removed "by hand" from the ANN output. There is another way of removing that bias. It is expected that if there will be used some real physical trigger for the ANN shower training sample and the same trigger will be used later in the ideal experiment tests the bias will be automatically removed. In such a case even the all zero events should produce a reasonable (to some extend) ANN answer.

6 Conclusions

Final conclusions of the present work can be formed in a few statements:

- For large showers the most promising are the methods based on the minimization procedure of the "cumulative distributions" inspired measures

using individual detector data (DD and DD1) .

- For small showers some of the methods using the "cumulative distributions" are slightly better than the others.
- The knowledge of the fluctuation on each particular detectors allows one to use right the maximum likelihood method. That knowledge improves to some extent the accuracy of the parameter estimation.
- For the studied in the present paper *ideal experiment* of the geometry of KASCADE (its array muon part) the best developed methods allows one to go down with the muon sizes of analyzed showers to about few thousands per shower (below 10^{15} eV).
- The artificial neural network approach gives a hope that the limit can be shifted down to 10^{14} eV. However that methods is strongly effected by the exactness of the simulations used for the network training.

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